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IRRATIONAL BELIEFS AND SELF-CONCEPT
IN TWO KINDS OF BEHAVIOR

by

A. LEE HOXTER

A THESIS

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The undersigned certify that they have read and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies for acceptance a thesis entitled "Irrational Beliefs and Self-Concept in Two Kinds of Behavior," submitted by A.Lee Hoxter in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

ABSTRACT

This investigation is concerned with achieving a better understanding of culturally deprived pupils in urban cities who present serious school behavior problems. The theoretical orientation of the study is derived from two positions explaining human behavior. The first position is Ellis' (1962) model of irrational beliefs leading to negative emotion and disturbance. The second position comes from Self-Theory in psychology. The constructs utilized are self-concept, ideal self-concept and discrepancy. The Ellis' model and the Self-Theory approach are both cognitively based and stress beliefs as being steering functions of emotion and behavior.

The problem of the study was: Are there differences in the beliefs, self-concepts, ideal self-concepts and discrepancy, in culturally deprived pupils representing two kinds of behavior? The two kinds of behavior are, (1) "problem," and (2) "non-problem" in the school setting. The symbols S_D , and S_O were introduced. These symbols designate the two kinds of behavior represented by the two groups of the study. S_D , means stream disoriented behavior. S_O , means stream oriented behavior. Stream disoriented (S_D), refers to "behavior problem" adjustment in school. Stream oriented (S_O), refers to "non-behavior problem" adjustment in school.

The research hypotheses were: (1) the S_D group will have significantly more irrational beliefs than the S_O group; (2) the S_D group will have significantly lower self-concept scores; (3) there will be no significant difference in ideal self-concept scores between the S_D group and the S_O group; (4) there will be a significantly greater discrepancy between self-concept and ideal self-concept scores in the S_D group.

One hundred and sixty-nine fourteen year-old boys from the Philadelphia Public Schools were in the sample. The S_D group numbered one hundred and two. The remaining 67 made up the S_O group. All subjects were selected from culturally deprived environments. The subjects in the S_D group were selected from actual placement in Remedial Disciplinary Schools. The subjects in the S_O group were selected from three regular junior high schools.

Results of the investigation indicate that: (a) the S_D group had more irrational beliefs than the S_O group; (b) the S_D group did not have lower self-concept scores; (c) as predicted, no differences were found in ideal self-concept scores; (d) a greater discrepancy between self-concept and ideal self-concept was not found in the S_D group.

It was concluded that beliefs of pupils do offer a helpful means of understanding behavior. The assumption was made that pupils in the S_D group can probably be helped in the way Ellis (1962) prescribes by using a Rational Emotive Psychotherapy counseling approach.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

THESIS PROBLEM AND ITS BACKGROUND

Parents, educators and social scientists in the United States have become well aware in recent years of the growing number of children being classified as "behavior problems" in the schools. The large number of such "behavior problems" is especially evident within the urban school population. Many of the pupils enrolled in the metropolitan areas in the United States have been classified as "disadvantaged" by educators because of the pupils' lack of cultural experience. They represent not the middle class, but the so-called culturally deprived or culturally disadvantaged. A large proportion of these youths come from homes in which the adults have a minimal level of education and social values different from those held by the majority of Americans.

Who are the culturally deprived and where do they come from? Deutsch (1963) suggests that while this group includes such immigrants to the urban areas as Puerto Ricans, Mexicans and southern-rural Negroes and whites, it also includes many individuals who were born in the large cities, and many individuals living in small towns as well as rural areas. The designation of cultural deprivation should not be equated with membership in an ethnic group, but should be defined in terms of characteristics of the individual himself, and/or the

characteristics of his environment.

American education has tended to lead that of the other nations in trying to make education available to all children rather than to an exclusive group stemming from upper and middle class families. As a result, therefore, the United States has had to face, sooner than have other countries, the problems related to providing education based on a principle of equality of opportunity for all classes. Not all children accept the process of education in the same way. Watson (1962) helps us to realize that so-called culturally deprived children do not see much value in the formal academic routines of our schools and, having been humiliated by failure, have developed hostility towards school authorities. He notes an alienation between teachers and those pupils who need the most help. Watson's (1962) impression of this alienation is that:

The American public school is a curious hybrid: it is managed by a school board drawn largely from upper-class circles; it is taught by teachers who come largely from middle-class backgrounds; and it is attended mainly by children from working class homes. These three groups do not talk the same language. They differ in their manners, powers, and hierarchies of values (p. x).

The question can be asked: Why are the culturally deprived such a problem in the urban schools? To answer this it is necessary to understand what has happened in the population make-up. There is a movement to the city and out from it. The movement itself is of importance, but more significant is the kind of movement that is

taking place. The population mobility in cities like New York, Chicago, Cleveland, Philadelphia and Detroit began in the 1940's and 1950's. There has been a large influx of poorly trained and poorly educated people from the south. Along with this in-movement there has been a trend of exodus to the outer fringe of the city and to the suburbs. Those moving out are mostly middle and upper classes. On the other hand, those moving in are from the lower economic levels. This situation has caused a major change in the social structure of the metropolitan areas -- an influx of lower level socially and culturally based families.

Reissman (1962) indicates that in the United States, in 1950 approximately one child out of every ten in the fourteen largest cities was in the lower class.* By 1960 the figure had gone up to one in three. He estimates that by 1970, "there may be one deprived child for every two enrolled in schools in these large cities" (p.1).

The present study is not an investigation of the culturally deprived student per se. In many communities large numbers of pupils in this classification are a major concern for disciplinary reasons. Very little is being done to study the problem. The common approach to the general study of lower class, or so-called culturally deprived pupils and their problems, has taken the form of looking at social

*Reissman uses the terms "lower class" and "culturally deprived" interchangeably.

background, improving the academic program and enriching cultural deficits. Very few studies have been concerned with the personality characteristics of these students. If the behavior of many deprived pupils presents a serious problem, knowing more about their personality characteristics should prove to be of value. In their studies on compensatory education, Bloom, Davis and Hess (1965), strongly suggest research on personality development of such children.

When research is designed to investigate personality characteristics of culturally deprived children, methodological problems are encountered. While this study did not investigate the broad array of personality characteristics, it did attempt to enable school personnel to have a better understanding of the pupils themselves. Since problems in behavior have long been recognized as being related to emotional difficulty, the focus is on emotional adjustment. That the relationship between the emotions and behavior is important in understanding adjustment is a well documented observation (Cobb, 1950; Ellis, 1962; Horney, 1950; Rogers, 1951; Schacter and Singer, 1962). A very recent formulation supporting this view is expressed by Wolman (1965), who sees emotional disbalance, social maladjustment, and irritability in cognitive processes as three criteria for poor mental health and mental disorder.

Should schools and school personnel be concerned with mental health? An affirmative answer cannot be avoided. Not only is there a

need for understanding the behavior of the culturally deprived in urban schools, but the need for a better understanding of behavior of all school children is equally essential.

The question this study will attempt to answer is: Are there differences between the emotional status of culturally deprived pupils who present "no behavior problems"* in school, and of those who find themselves labelled as "behavior problems?"

Statement of the Research Problem

The research problem of this study was to determine if there is a difference in beliefs, self-concepts, and ideal self-concepts in two groups of culturally deprived urban school pupils. One group represents those who are classified as "behavior problems" in school and the second, those who are not so classified.

The second chapter presents and explains the theoretical orientation of the study. The rationale which underlies the use of the three variables, beliefs, self-concept and ideal self-concept will be explicated.

*Students who achieved passing marks in conduct, deportment or behavior or were not considered to be a disciplinary problem by school personnel.

CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL ORIENTATION

There is an obvious need to provide a better understanding of culturally deprived pupils having difficulty meeting behavior standards in school. Behavior is considered by many theorists to be closely related to emotions. Cobb (1950) defines emotions as, (1) an introspectively given affect state usually mediated by acts of interpretation; (2) the whole set of internal physiological changes which help (ideally) the return to normal equilibrium between the organism and the environment; and (3) the various patterns of overt behavior. It is clear from this definition that emotion as Cobb (1950) sees it includes three components - cognitive, physiological and behavioral. McGill (1954) also considers emotion as including a cognitive component. As Schacter and Singer (1962) suggest, an emotional state may be considered a function of physiological arousal and of a cognition appropriate to this state of arousal. They explain their position by saying:

The cognition, in a sense exerts a steering function. Cognitions arising from the immediate situations as interpreted by past experience provide the framework within which one understands and labels his feelings. It is the cognition which determines whether the state of physiological arousal will be labelled as "anger," "joy," "fear," or whatever (p. 379).

Ellis (1962), too, sees emotion as a complex mode of behavior which is an integrally related sensing and responding process.

Rokeach (1960) indicates that every emotion has its cognitive counterpart and every cognition its emotional counterpart. Cobb (1950), McGill (1954), Ellis (1962), Schacter and Singer (1962), and Rokeach (1960) are in company with such investigators as Arnold (1960), Berlyne (1957), Festinger (1957), Johnson (1946), Kelly (1955), Korzybski (1941), Luria (1961), Phillips (1956), and Secord and Backman (1961) in emphasizing cognitive determinants of human emotions.

There is ample support from both theoretical and empirical literature that cognitions and emotions have a close relationship. As Schacter and Singer (1962) demonstrated in their experiment, the individual labels an emotional state and describes his feelings in terms of cognitions available to him. It is likely that any particular one of the several approaches, which consider cognition as a determiner of emotion, could serve as a research directive. However, the approach formulated by Ellis (1962) appears to be more appropriate as a research directive in attacking the problem of the present study.

Irrational Ideas and Emotional Disturbance

Ellis' (1962) theory of Rational Emotive Psychotherapy offers a system of relating cognition and emotion. Rational Emotive Psychotherapy, which is often called, Rational Therapy or R.T., evolved as the result of Ellis' efforts in arriving at a more efficient method of treating emotionally disturbed patients. The theme of R.T. is that man can be uniquely rational or uniquely irrational; his emotional or

psychological disturbances are largely the result of his thinking illogically or irrationally (Ellis, 1962). In his system, Ellis (1962) explains that thinking takes the form of self talk, or internalized sentences that the person tells himself. These self-verbalizations, in turn, create feeling. Accordingly, then, human emotions are often associated with or result from internalized sentences such as, "this is good for me" or "this is bad for me."

The theoretical foundations of R.T. are based on the assumption that human thinking and emotion are not two disparate or different processes, but that they significantly overlap and are in some respects essentially the same thing. Much of what we call emotion is nothing more or less than a certain biased, prejudiced or strongly evaluative kind of thought (Ellis, 1962). The evaluative kind of thought is the individual's thinking which takes the form of self talk. The self talk or internalized sentence sets up the emotional state (Ellis, 1960). With Ellis, the rationality of the internalized sentence determines whether the emotion will be negative or positive. According to Ellis (1962) it is the irrational ideas* which the individual adopts that lead to negative emotion and disturbance.

Ellis (1962) presents this same idea in another form which he

* According to Ellis (1962) irrational ideas are beliefs which are illogical and nonsensical. They are mistaken and unrealistic.

calls the A-B-C Theory of Personality and Emotional Disturbance. He suggests that the A-B-C Theory is closely related to existential and phenomenological approaches (Combs and Snygg, 1959). The A-B-C Theory holds that it is rarely the stimulus, A, which gives rise to human emotion, C. Rather it is almost always B, the individual's beliefs regarding attitudes toward, or interpretation of A, which actually lead to his reaction C (Ellis, 1962). The stress by Ellis (1962) is on the evaluative phase B, which is really the individual's beliefs. In understanding the beliefs the question is, are they rational or irrational?

According to Ellis some of man's irrational ideas may be rooted in biological origins, but most of them derive from his upbringing. In Western society most of these ideas come from parents, teachers, peer groups and contact with mass media. In his therapy an R.T. practitioner would naturally not deal with every irrational belief prevalent in Western society. He takes up those which present themselves in the form of the patient's internalized sentences. Ellis (1962) has outlined eleven major illogical and irrational beliefs which he suggests are presently ubiquitous in Western civilization. Some of the major illogical and irrational ideas which, according to Ellis, seem to lead to disturbance, together with their more rational replacement, are:

Irrational Idea No. 1
Basic Irrational Idea

The idea that it is a dire necessity for an adult human being to be loved or approved by virtually every significant other person in his community.

More Rational Replacement

One should concentrate on his own self-respect, on winning approval for necessary purposes (such as job achievement), and on loving rather than being loved.

Irrational Idea No. 2
Basic Irrational Idea

The idea that one should be thoroughly competent, adequate, and achieving in all possible respects if one is to consider oneself worthwhile. The main goal and purpose of life is achievement, or success. One is worthless if one is incompetent.

More Rational Replacement

It is better to focus on doing than on doing well; to accept oneself as an imperfect creature, who has definite human limitations and fallibilities; to consider oneself worthwhile whether or not one is competent or achieving.

Irrational Idea No. 3
Basic Irrational Idea

The idea that certain people are bad, wicked, or villainous and they should be severely blamed and punished for their villainy.

More Rational Replacement

Instead of becoming unduly upset over his own or others' inappropriate or antisocial acts (wrongdoings), the rational individual should not criticize or blame others or himself but try to understand why people act the way they do, realizing that such acts are committed out of stupidity, ignorance, or emotional disturbance.

Irrational Idea No. 4
Basic Irrational Idea

The idea that it is terrible, horrible, and catastrophic when things are not the way one would like them to be. One should not have to put off present pleasures for future gains.

More Rational Replacement

One should learn by one's past experiences but not be overly attached to or prejudiced by them. One should thoughtfully consider and question alternative modes of present behavior rather than act in a purely traditional or customary manner.

Irrational Idea No. 5
Basic Irrational Idea

The idea that much human unhappiness is externally caused and is forced on one by outside people and events. One has virtually no control over one's emotions and cannot help feeling badly on many occasions.

More Rational Replacement

Most human unhappiness is caused or sustained by the view one takes of people and events rather than by people and events themselves.

Irrational Idea No. 6
Basic Irrational Idea

The idea that if something is or may be dangerous or fearsome one should be terribly concerned about it and should keep dwelling on the possibility of its occurring.

More Rational Replacement

If something is or may be dangerous or injurious one should face it and try to render it less dangerous or injurious, and when that is impossible, focus on other things and stop telling oneself what a terrible situation one is in. Worrying over a dire situation will rarely ward it off and often will prevent one's effectively counteracting it.

Irrational Idea No. 7
Basic Irrational Idea

The idea that it is easier to avoid than to face certain life difficulties and self responsibilities. Inertia and inaction are necessary and/or pleasant. One should rebel against doing things, however necessary, if it is unpleasant.

More Rational Replacement

The so-called easier way is usually much harder in the long run and the only way to solve difficult problems is to face them squarely. Inertia and inaction are generally unnecessary and relatively unpleasant. One should do necessary things however unpleasant they may be, without complaining and rebelling.

Irrational Idea No. 8
Basic Irrational Idea

The idea that one should be dependent on others and needs someone stronger than oneself on whom to rely.

More Rational Replacement

The more you rely on others to guide you and help you do various things, the less you will tend to do these things for yourself, and in consequence to learn by doing them. Instead of striving to be dependent on others, the individual should do his best to stand on his own two feet and do his own thinking and acting.

Irrational Idea No. 9
Basic Irrational Idea

The idea that because something once strongly affected one's life, it should indefinitely affect it. Because one's parents or society raised one to accept certain traditions, one must always unthinkingly accept them.

More Rational Replacement

One should learn by one's past experiences but not be overly attached to or prejudiced by them. One should thinkingly consider and question alternative modes of present behavior rather than act in a purely traditional or customary manner.

Irrational Idea No. 10
Basic Irrational Idea

The idea that one should become quite upset over other people's problems and disturbances.

More Rational Replacement

Even when we induce others to change by becoming upset over their actions the price is high in payment for our own self created disturbance. Other people's deficiencies are largely their problems and frequently have little or nothing to do with us.

Irrational Idea No. 11 Basic Irrational Idea

The idea that there is invariably a right, precise, and perfect solution to human problems and that it is catastrophic if this perfect solution is not found.

More Rational Replacement

One should first make an effort to think of several possible solutions and to choose, from these alternatives, the one that is most practical and feasible. He should recognize that to err is human and humans generally learn by trial and error.

The Eleven Irrational Ideas just presented are not, of course, all of the irrational ideas that could lead to negative emotion and disturbance. Ellis (1962) uses these ideas in a therapeutic setting as part of the structure in helping a client to examine his beliefs more rationally. The formal list of Eleven Irrational Ideas functions as a part of Ellis' therapeutic armamentarium. His theoretical system itself is much broader, and concerned not only with the individual's cognitions, his emotions and his behavior, but with methods of reducing

his difficulties.

Ellis' (1962) entire theoretical formulation will not be used in this study. In any research investigation, careful attention must be paid to the variables under study. In science, the concept of simplicity enables a researcher to be clear and precise. From Ellis' Theory only one idea will be used. This conservative approach is not without empirical support. Skinner (1950) questions theories because their use can lead to results not properly developed. Brunswick and Sidman (1960), in a related vein consider theories as summary statements, which should not be produced too far in advance of the facts. From Ellis' Theory a summary statement has been selected and designated as, The Ellis' Irrational Beliefs Model.

The Ellis Irrational Beliefs Model: A Summary Statement

As suggested by Nagel (1961), a model may serve as a guide for setting up the fundamental assumptions of a theory, and, as a source of suggestions for extending the range of application. The Ellis' Model to be employed in this study, simply stated is: Irrational beliefs* lead to negative emotion and disturbance. As Ellis (1962) emphasizes, "it is almost always B, the individual's beliefs regarding, attitudes toward, or interpretation of A, which actually lead to his

*For purposes of this study, beliefs will be taken to mean: an individual's ideas or opinions about himself or his environment.

reaction C." The Eleven Irrational Ideas are used as a guide or check for the therapist to use to determine rationality or irrationality of the individual's thinking.

The use of Ellis' Eleven Irrational Ideas makes sense and is a reasonable undertaking with adults. However, this investigation is concerned with problem behavior of children. In using Ellis' Irrational Ideas on a non-adult population, this investigator feels that some of the eleven ideas may not clearly be applicable for children.

The Rationale for Use of Selected Ellis' Irrational Ideas

Admittedly the rationale for not including certain ideas for use in this study is speculative. From the investigator's point of view it is necessary to examine each idea carefully to note its implications for a child population. The concepts within each of the ideas must have relevance to a non-adult. These concepts should be in keeping with developmental expectations as they are found in the cognitive capabilities of a non-adult. In other words, the idea should be reasonable and natural in terms of the way children look at life, or are capable of looking at life. With these limitations in mind, Ideas Number One, Three, Ten and Eleven will not be used. The following is a statement of each of the eliminated irrational ideas accompanied by the investigator's justification for considering it of doubtful value for use with children.

Irrational Idea #1

The idea that it is a dire necessity for an adult human being to be loved or approved by virtually every significant other person in his community.

Reason for not Using

The reference here is specifically to "an adult human being." It is unclear what the implication might be for children. "That there is a dire necessity for an adult human being to be loved or approved by virtually every other significant person in his community," can be seen as having irrational aspects when found in adult thinking. But, does this hold for children? It seems reasonable to suggest from what is known of the developmental aspects of childhood that growing children profit from love and approval. Since it seems reasonable to believe that children need some love and approval, the use of this idea becomes questionable because of the problem of defining what is a "significant other" for a child.

Irrational Idea #3

The idea that certain people are bad, wicked or villainous, and that they should be severely blamed and punished for their villainy.

Reason for not Using

This idea presents conceptual difficulties related to the cognitive maturation of the individual. Children's evaluations of behavior are not always based on understanding the motivation of a

person's act. They are not always able to realize the why's of behavior. The point is clearer if what Ellis says in his rational replacement is studied:

He should try to understand why people act the way they do - to make an effort to see things from their frame of reference when he thinks they are wrong. If there is any way of stopping others doing their misdeeds, he should calmly try to stop them. If there is no way of stopping them (as, alas, often is the case!) he should become philosophically resigned to others wrongdoings by saying to himself: "It's too bad that they keep acting that way." All right: so it's too bad. And it isn't, from my standpoint necessarily catastrophic (Ellis, 1962, p. 69).

For a child to understand why people act the way they do and "become philosophically resigned" to other's wrongdoings seems to the investigator to involve more maturity of thought than can be expected of younger children.

Irrational Idea #10

The idea that one should become quite upset over other people's problems and disturbances.

Reason for not Using

It is the investigator's impression that for children this concept appears to be one which includes a sense of moral responsibility. Child development proceeds from an early stage of complete egocentricity found in pre-schoolers, to more advanced empathy and concern over the problems of others. Children are at various stages along the social maturity continuum. They move gradually from an initial base of egocentricity to that of concern for others. The latter is at the

adult or grown-up end of the continuum. Therefore, it is unreasonable to expect most children who are at various stages of development in their concern for others to consider seriously the ideation presented in this irrational idea.

Irrational Idea #11

The idea that there is invariably a right, precise and perfect solution to human problems and that it is catastrophic if this perfect solution is not found.

Reason for not Using

As Ellis himself writes about this irrational idea:

Millions of modern men and women believe that they must have perfect, certain solutions to the problems that beset them and that if they live in a world of imperfection and uncertainty they cannot happily survive (Ellis, 1962, p. 87).

Ellis' explanation of Irrational Idea #11 specifically says, "millions of modern men and women believe that they must have perfect solutions to problems." It seems to the present investigator that children are not bothered by imperfection to the same degree as adults. Children do not have the mental maturity to understand many human problems. In addition they are in the habit of relying on their parents to solve many of the problems that face them. Ellis (1962) advocates this approach in connection with Irrational Idea #11:

When faced with a significant life problem, he should first make an effort to think of several possible solutions and to choose from these alternatives, the one that is most practical and feasible, rather than the one that is "perfect."

Knowing that humans generally learn by trial and error, he should be willing and eager to experiment, to try various plans to see if they will work, and to keep seeking and pragmatically testing possible new solutions to problems (p. 88).

The question is, do children think this way? To be able to choose alternatives that are feasible, to seek "and pragmatically test" new solutions does not appear to be a natural capability in the thought processes of developing children.

The rationale for not using all of Ellis' Irrational Ideas in this study has been given. Essentially the investigator's objections cluster around the question of maturational suitability of the ideas in question for use with a non-adult population.

Cognitions, Beliefs and Emotions

It was pointed out earlier in this chapter that Ellis (1962) presents one of several approaches which emphasize cognitive determinants in human emotions and behavior. It was additionally suggested that Schacter and Singer (1962) consider cognitions as providing the framework within which the individual labels his feelings. Going one step further Schacter and Singer (1962) illustrate that the cognition exerts a "steering function." In the Ellis' (1962) formulation it is the beliefs held at B which exert, in his view, this "steering function" leading to behavior.

At point B in the A-B-C Theory, the individual is making an evaluation. His cognitions are formed at point B, and he places a

label on his feeling as to whether it will be "anger," "joy," "fear," or some other designation. Rokeach (1960) states that "every emotion has its cognitive counterpart and every cognition its emotional counterpart." In the Ellis (1962) Model the emotion has as its cognitive counterpart, the individual's beliefs.

Ellis (1962) makes the point that irrational beliefs lead to negative* emotion and disturbance. He suggests rational beliefs lead to positive** emotion and do not lead to disturbance. The evaluative or steering mechanism is the cognition or belief at point B. This study is concerned directly with the individual's beliefs at point B. Seven of Ellis' Irrational Ideas were used to determine beliefs of the subjects in the sample. The use of the Ellis (1962) Model does not limit the evaluation of the individual's beliefs to just the criteria of Ellis' formal list. As Ellis (1962) points out, individuals can have many irrational as well as rational beliefs. The irrational beliefs in The Eleven Ideas are just some of those found in Western Society. The ideas in the Ellis' (1962) list of ideas concern the individual himself as well as his view of other people and events as they relate to him.

*Ellis (1962) cites, as examples, feelings of "anger," or "depression" as negative emotions.

**Ellis (1962) cites, as examples, feelings of "love," or "elation" as positive emotions.

The Self-Theory Approach

Key emphasis is given the steering function of beliefs at point B in the A-B-C Theory. The similarity of Ellis' idea of beliefs and basic Self Theory can be seen to have an isomorphic relationship in terms of their cognitive aspect. Self-Theory in psychology is based on a self-system. As Ellis (1962) himself points out his theory is closely related to phenomenalist and existential approaches to human behavior such as that of Combs and Snygg (1959). Ellis (1962) and Combs and Snygg (1959) hold that it is rarely the stimulus, A, which gives rise to human emotional reaction, C. Instead it is usually B - the individual's beliefs regarding attitudes toward, or interpretation of A - which actually lead to his reaction, C.

The central idea of the Combs and Snygg (1959) approach is that:

People do not behave according to the facts as others see them. They behave according to the facts as they see them. What governs behavior from the point of view of the individual himself are his unique perceptions of himself and the world in which he lives, the meanings things have for him (p. 17).

When the individual "behaves according to the facts," these facts are really his beliefs or cognitions. Combs and Snygg (1959) have emphasized that the governing of behavior of the individual is through his unique perceptions. The unique perceptions are nothing more than the individual's cognitions or his beliefs. When Ellis (1962) points out the close relationship between his position and that of Combs and Snygg (1959) he stresses the emphasis at point B.

It has been previously mentioned that at point B the evaluation takes place. It is here the individual labels his emotion which is expressed as an internalized sentence. The beliefs as Ellis (1962) sees them and "the facts" as Combs and Snygg see them are the same. They are the steering mechanisms leading to behavior. They are the cognitions which form the internalized sentence. Beliefs, then, are the "steering mechanism" of behavior in both the Ellis Model and the Self-Theory approach to behavior.

Self-theorists consider the self-concept to be determined by the individual's cognitions. The self-concept is formed on the basis of each individual's unique perceptions or beliefs about himself. Self-systems, which emphasize the self-concept, are not without empirical support. The empirical studies are based on the work of a number of authors including Horney (1950), Rogers (1951), Sullivan (1953), Maslow (1954), and Strang (1957). These theorists have postulated the self as an all important concept in determining behavior. If the self is in fact a determiner of behavior, just how does this happen? More specifically, what is the behavior like in relation to self concept? Just what is the relation between self-concept and behavior adjustment?

In Self-Theory positive self-concepts lead to positive or adequate behavior adjustment while negative self-concepts lead to negative and less adequate behavior adjustment (Horney, 1950, Rogers, 1951). The individual forms his self-concepts through his unique perceptions which are really his beliefs.

In the Self-Theory framework inadequate people tend to see themselves in negative ways, or to put it another way, they have negative self-concepts. The self responds to stimuli in terms of its own self perception, or beliefs. If there are feelings of unworthiness, inability, isolation and insignificance, the self feels less adequate and "negative emotion" in Ellis' sense is likely to result. For example, the individual might say to himself, "I am unworthy," "I am bad," "I am unimportant," or, "I am a failure in school." These illustrations are internalized sentences arising from the individual's self cognitions or beliefs about himself. The sentences are labelled, and produce emotion and behavior. If the self concept is adequate the emotion tends to be positive. If the beliefs are rational the emotion tends to be positive. Conversely, if the self concept is inadequate the emotion tends to be negative. And as was earlier pointed out (supra, p. 9), if the beliefs are irrational the emotion tends to be negative.

The single dimension of self-concept, which has been shown to be dependent on beliefs, does not stand alone in Self-Theory as a determiner of behavior. The concept of congruence is of importance. The notion of congruence is used to express the degree of adjustment or maladjustment. Rogers (1951), the leading figure in the Self-Theory group, considers congruence to mean the close matching of awareness and experience. Rogers feels congruence is the personality state in which the individual's actual behavior is in harmony with

his self perceptions. Conversely, incongruence, in Rogers' terms refers to the personality state in which the individual's actual behavior and experience are in disharmony with his perceptions or beliefs in the Ellis sense. Harper (1959) sees incongruence as a state of distress. Those in the Self-Theory group are concerned with congruence because of its isomorphic relationship with the basic dichotomy of the perspective or actual client and the well person. The basic meaning of psychological conflict is illustrated when the person says, "There is a gap between the image of man I cherish and the image I have of myself" (Singer, 1965).

Another way of understanding congruence is with the aid of the ideal self-concept. The ideal self-concept is the kind of person the individual hopes to be or would like to be (Strang, 1957). This image is formed by a person's beliefs. Incongruence is the distance between the self concept and ideal self concept. In the literature incongruence is frequently synonymous with the term discrepancy. Bills, Vance and McLean (1951), suggest that discrepancy between the concept of self and the concept of ideal self can be interpreted as personal maladjustment. Lipsitt (1958) considers the total difference between the individual's self-concept rating, described in a test measure, and his ideal self-concept score described in a test rating to be the discrepancy score. Discrepancy scores are typically utilized in self-concept studies (e.g., Bills, Vance and McLean, 1951; Block and

Thomas, 1955; Chodorkoff, 1954; Freidman, 1955; Hanlon, Hofstaetter and O'Connor, 1954; Lipsitt, 1958; Miller and Worchell, 1956; Palermo, Castaneda and McCandless, 1956; and Zimmer, 1954). As Rogers views it, the client, in therapy, shifts his goals as he improves, and the discrepancy between his ideal self image and his perceptions of his real self become less and less (Harper, 1959). Thus, self-concept and ideal self-concept can be seen to be importantly related. Both self-concept and ideal self-concept are fruitful entities in yielding information regarding the individual's adjustment as judged by cognitive components. Both self-concept and ideal self-concept are formed on the basis of the individual's beliefs about himself.

It seems reasonable, therefore, to use the Ellis Model and basic Self-Theory to form the theoretical orientation of this study. They are both cognitive approaches. They both emphasize a self-evaluative theme based on the individual's beliefs. In the Ellis Model, the stress is on self-talk or the internalized sentence as a steering mechanism determining behavior. In basic Self-Theory the stress is on the individual's perception of himself and his environment, which is accomplished through his beliefs. These beliefs, as in the Ellis Model become the steering mechanism determining behavior. The individual's beliefs, his self-concept, his ideal self concept and the degree of congruence are all cognitions occurring at point B in the A-B-C Theory of Personality. In the Ellis Model, if the beliefs are

irrational, negative emotion and behavior results. Similarly, in the Self-Theory approach, if the individual's self-concept is poor or inadequate, negative emotion results. The lack of congruence, or discrepancy, is also seen in Self-Theory as a source of negative emotion.

Emotion and behavior play an important and serious part in the individual's total mental health picture. Such terms as mental health or adjustment imply a dichotomy. The dichotomy involves a "two group division" between good or poor mental health, good or poor adjustment, or between adequate or inadequate mental health or adjustment. Workers in psychotherapy and the mental hygiene field are very much concerned with and are continually aware of the dividing lines separating positive adjustment and negative adjustment with respect to the populations entrusted to their professional care. The counselor, or psychologist must ask himself: Is this individual adjusting satisfactorily; is he a prospective client? The answer is frequently given in terms of the individual's unique adjustment within a given experiential frame of reference. Similar problems face the school psychologist. Study of two kinds of school behavior was chosen as the focus of the present investigation.

Two Kinds of Behavior

Two symbols will be introduced at this point. They are S_D and S_O . The meanings of the symbols are:

S_D = stream disoriented behavior

S_O = stream oriented behavior

Persons who go along without difficulty in a given environment are said to be stream oriented or in the S_O group. On the other hand, the S_D group are persons who have become diverted from "the stream," be it life generally, or school, and are "off the stream" or stream disoriented.

S_O behavior means the pupil has not veered from the stream in his behavior. He is not a behavior problem. The pupil who is stream disoriented has been diverted, or deflected, as it were, and is in a special situation because of his atypical behavior.

The S_D pupil is seen as having difficulty with school rules or standards. Pupils in the S_D group are those who have a record of serious disciplinary behavior which includes such things as:

1. truancy;
2. overly aggressive acts, such as fighting, hi-jacking lunches or money;
3. stealing;
4. interfering with teacher's discipline (uncontrolled open comments, abusive or profane language in school, open or defiant resistance to school leaders (peers), teachers or administrators.

Stream Disoriented Behavior and Irrational Ideas

How does stream disoriented behavior relate to possession of irrational ideas? An illustration can be made by using Irrational

Idea No. 9, which simply says, because something once strongly affected one's life, it should indefinitely affect it. Because one's parents or society raised one to accept certain traditions, one must always unthinkingly accept them. The rational replacement for this Irrational Idea says one should thinkingly consider and question alternative modes of present behavior rather than act in a purely traditional way. It is irrational to continue to behave in view of the past regardless of the present. Experience with stream disoriented pupils usually gives teachers and other school personnel a sense of frustration in dealing with the pupils' irrational reasons for problem school behavior. The stream disoriented pupil who truants usually has beliefs about school and himself that are illogical and irrational. The overly aggressive stream disoriented pupil is motivated by perhaps another set of beliefs. The beliefs these Sp pupils have are sustained and the pupil continues to act in his traditional way leading to a state of chronically unacceptable school behavior. And, as Ellis (1962) says, it is irrational to continue to behave in view of the past regardless of the present.

Much Sp behavior, or in Ellis' terms, negative behavior, is just such a reaction. Because of irrational beliefs, the Sp pupil continues to behave in his customary ways. These customary ways cause him to be considered by school authorities as presenting problem behavior in school.

In order to place in a practical perspective just how the Ellis' (1962) Irrational Ideas might be translated into a real situation a scheme is presented here. Admittedly, the basis is speculative, but might be useful in helping to show how cognitions at point B might evolve as everyday or chronic Sp school behavior, which would be re-presented at point C. In the left column the irrational idea is given. In the right column appear hypothetical examples of Sp school patterns of behavior which conceivably could result.

<u>Ellis Irrational Idea</u>	<u>Hypothetical Examples of School Stream Disoriented Patterns</u>
2. Feeling of self worthlessness if incompetent.	Refusal to do school work because of low grades -- or difficulty in achieving success. Showing off (acting out) in school to regain self-concept in face of low school achievement.
4. Upset if not having things our way.	Avoiding assignments, truanting, cutting classes, not preparing assignments.
5. Our unhappiness forced on us by others. No control over one's emotions.	Breaking rules, not accepting new standards, giving vent to aggressive and hostile feelings, fighting, abusive behavior.
6. Worrying about a dire possibility -- being terribly concerned if one thinks something is dangerous or fearsome.	Tense and anxious about school problems because of fear, leading to negative attitudes and actions toward teachers and school in general.

Ellis Irrational IdeaHypothetical Examples of School Stream Disoriented Patterns

- | | |
|--|--|
| 7. Easier to avoid life's difficulties and self-responsibilities, than to face them. | Avoidance behavior re: rules and customs.
Truanting, not preparing assignments, cutting classes. |
| 8. Being overly dependent on others. | Following the crowd, being easily influenced by close friends to break school rules, but would not do so if independent. Not accepting values and standards of the school if different from home or peer group. |
| 9. Assuming one's past is an all-important determiner of present behavior. | Refusal or inability to accept standards of the teacher, or school since they are different from those already established internally (lateness, chronic absences, lack of respect for authority, open defiance to authority and regulations). |

An attempt has been made to relate some of Ellis (1962) Irrational Ideas to resultant behavior in school situations. In a speculative way each idea to be used in the study can be seen to relate to various forms "of poor school behavior." The schematization is not a part of the design of the study. It is a device formulated by the writer to help show how possession of Ellis' Irrational Ideas might lead to stream disoriented (S_D) behavior.

In establishing the S_0 group and S_D group, and in assigning to these categories individuals who have two different kinds of school adjustment, the application of the theoretical framework to a real life domain has been made in terms of a logical progression.

The subjects in the investigation will be compared to determine:

- (1) possession of irrational beliefs; (2) self-concept; (3) ideal self-concept, and (4) discrepancy.

Independent Variables Operationally Defined

1. Irrational beliefs are illogical ideas or notions which the individual has. They will be measured by the Irrational Ideas Inventory.*
2. Self-concept is made up of perceptions or beliefs the individual has of himself with respect to certain characteristics or attributes. The self-concept will be measured by the Self-Concept Scale.*
3. Ideal Self-concept is the kind of person the individual would like to be. Ideal self-concept will be measured by the Ideal Self-Concept Scale.*
4. Discrepancy (or the degree of incongruence). Discrepancy is the degree of relatedness between the individual's self-concept and his ideal self-concept. The discrepancy is represented by a score which is the difference between the scores obtained on the Self-Concept Scale and the Ideal Self-Concept Scale.

*To be described in Chapter III.

SUMMARY

The theoretical framework of this study has been taken from two basic positions. From Ellis (1962), The Ellis Model of Irrational Beliefs, which simply stated is that Irrational Beliefs lead to negative emotion and disturbance. The second position is derived from basic Self-Theory in psychology. Specifically, Self-Theory emphasizes the self-concept. The individual forms his self-concept on the basis of his beliefs.

These related cognitive approaches have been shown in this chapter to be a reasonable basis for the formulation of research hypotheses pertinent to the goals of this study. The theoretical rationale is based on the A-B-C Theory of Personality Model. The stimulus is at A. At point B, the beliefs, self-concept and ideal self-concept become steering mechanisms leading to C, behavior. If the beliefs at B are irrational the behavior will tend to be negative. If the self-concept at B is inadequate the behavior at C will tend to be negative.

The theoretical orientation is in keeping with a scientifically parsimonious approach. In heeding the advice of Skinner (1950), Brunswick (1952), and Sidman (1960), there is no attempt to deal with Ellis' entire theory. The model of irrational beliefs producing negative emotion becomes the basis of the first hypothesis. There is recognition, also, of Morison's (1960) warning that it may be satisfying to psychologist's needs to have a comprehensive theory, but it is

probably more scientifically productive in the long run to begin one's work with limited but testable hypotheses.

Research Hypotheses

1. The stream disoriented (S_D) group will have significantly more irrational beliefs than the stream oriented (S_O) group as measured by the Irrational Ideas Inventory.
2. The stream disoriented (S_D) group will have significantly lower self-concept scores as measured by the Self-Concept Scale (Lipsitt).
3. There will be no significant difference in ideal self-concept scores as measured by the Ideal Self-Concept Scale (Lipsitt) between the stream disoriented (S_D) group and the stream oriented (S_O) group.
4. There will be a significantly greater discrepancy between self-concept scores and ideal self-concept scores in the stream disoriented (S_D) group.

Chapter III will present empirical studies bearing on the formulated research hypotheses. The pertinent studies relating to beliefs, self-concept, ideal self-concept and discrepancy will be cited and summarized as they relate to the theoretical orientation.

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CHAPTER III

REVIEW OF RELATED RESEARCH

The theoretical orientation of this study has led to testable hypotheses directly concerned with beliefs, self-concept, ideal self-concept, and discrepancy between self-concept and ideal self-concept. As far as can be determined, there are no reported studies which have, or, are utilizing the present theoretical orientation in an attempt to understand problem behavior in culturally deprived urban school children.

This chapter will present a review of those studies having relevance to the four independent variables of this study: beliefs, self-concept, ideal self-concept and discrepancy.

Beliefs

Little empirical work has been done with beliefs as they relate to behavior of school age subjects. There appears to be no evidence of empirical investigation of the beliefs of culturally deprived pupils who are considered to be behavior problems in urban schools. In order to provide a frame of reference for what has been done empirically several studies will be cited.

Festinger (1954, 1957) has studied beliefs as they relate to his theory of cognitive dissonance. Festinger suggests that dissonance in cognitions exerts a motivating force on behavior. He illustrates cognitive dissonance by indicating that if a person

knows, or believes two things, for example, something about himself and something about the world in which he lives, which somehow do not fit together, this is cognitive dissonance. Cognitive dissonance will then give rise to activity oriented toward reducing or eliminating the dissonance.

A similar line of thinking led Requin (1965) to study theoretical and methodological problems of attitudes as preparation to action. Requin theorized that there is a relevant relationship between physiological and psychological characteristics, prior to the physical or cognitive performance. While Requin does not give empirical support for this position, his formulation appears to be a convincing argument for such a relationship.

Gordon (1962) suggests that a belief has a "biological" function. In her formulation, beliefs prepare the organism for action. They provide a conception of the world and facilitate behavior which relates subjective needs to objective facts. According to Gordon the beliefs are one of the most constant factors determining behavior. Gordon's (1962) investigation dealt with stereotypy of imagery and belief as an ego defense. The study was carried out with college students in London. The results obtained in this study suggested that there is a very close relationship between the nature and character of a person's ideology or beliefs and his basic personality and its problems.

Rokeach (1960) reports studies focusing on belief systems where relationships between beliefs and thoughts were studied in various

adult populations. It will be recalled, as pointed out in Chapter II, that Rokeach (1960) feels, every emotion has its cognitive counterpart and every cognition its emotional counterpart. Rokeach (1960) found that scores on dogmatism and anxiety correlate from .36 to .64 in various groups tested in the United States and England. Two factor analyses showed that dogmatism and anxiety are factorially similar. Those subjects who scored low on a dogmatism scale, as compared with middle or high scorers, expressed more ambivalence toward their fathers and mothers. The low scorers also reported being more widely influenced by persons outside the immediately family, as well as having had fewer anxiety symptoms of childhood. When subjects belief systems were measured on openness-closedness to earlier experience, it was found that the middle and closed subjects, when compared to the open subjects, reveal more glorification of parents, a more restricted influence by persons outside the family, and a greater incidence in childhood of thumb-sucking, nail biting, temper tantrums, nightmares, walking and talking while asleep, and bed-wetting. These findings led Rokeach (1960) to suggest this hypothesis: when ambivalence toward parents is not permitted expression it leads to both anxiety and to narrowing of possibilities for identification with persons outside the family. According to Rokeach (1960) both of these outcomes lead to the development of closed belief systems.

The purpose of Kemp's (1964) study was to gain knowledge of the degree of self awareness in relation to the openness of the belief

system. The question was, is there a difference in the character of the perception of those with open and closed belief systems? Kemp hypothesized that the self-perception of those with open belief systems would be significantly more accurate* than the perception of those with closed belief systems. Using college students in his sample, Kemp found that the accuracy of perceiving their anxiety was better in the open minded subjects. The open minded subjects perceived themselves to be more closed minded in their beliefs, while the closed minded subjects perceived themselves as being more open minded in their beliefs. Vidulich (1958), investigating beliefs and cognitive systems, found that subjects with relatively closed cognitive systems had fewer negative beliefs than subjects with relatively open cognitive systems.

The question Greenwald (1964) attempted to answer was: when a persuasive communication causes change in belief, will behavior also change? Using eighth grade pupils Greenwald's experiment involved pretest and posttest measurement of belief and behavior with reference to learning history and vocabulary. Greenwald predicted that a prior commitment opposing an influence attempt could produce the pattern of belief change without behavior change. On the basis of his results, Greenwald suggested that failures to obtain behavior change, when belief change has occurred, can result from a prior commitment opposing the influence attempt. Going a step further, he indicated his findings

*reality oriented.

suggested also, that the inertia* of behavior following commitment is greater than the inertia of belief.

Crandall, Katkovsky and Crandall (1965) studied beliefs in elementary and high school children. These investigators pointed out that individuals have been found to differ in the degree to which they believe that they are usually able to influence the outcome of situations. They point out that personal beliefs could be important determiners of the reinforcing effects of many experiences. Explaining their rationale further these investigators use this example: if an individual is convinced that he has little control over the rewards and punishments he receives, then he has little reason to modify his behavior in an attempt to alter the probability that those events will occur. The instrument developed for the study, the Intellectual Achievement Responsibility (IAR) Questionnaire, attempted to measure beliefs in internal versus external reinforcement responsibility. Crandall, Katkovsky and Crandall, suggest, as a result of their study, the probability that a belief in self-responsibility constitutes a motivational influence upon achievement.

Dressel and Mayhew (1954) were interested in affective outcomes of general education. Using an inventory of beliefs they presented 120 students with belief statements before and after an educational experience to measure change in belief patterns. Students found to

*tendency to resist change.

be high in authoritarianism were uncomfortable in discussions, in studying abstract subjects, and in independent study. These students liked power or status-centered vocations and were inclined to be rigid in their thought processes.

Trent (1957) investigated self-acceptance and attitudes of 202 Negro children. He found that those who were the most self-accepting had more positive attitudes toward both Negroes and whites than did children who were least self-accepting.

Lower class pre-adolescent boys ages 10-13 were studied by Lesser (1959) to note beliefs about aggression. He found that provoked physical aggression was relatively approved; outbursts, unprovoked physical aggression, and verbal aggression were progressively more disapproved; and indirect aggression was strongly disapproved.

Zingle (1965), using a Rational Therapy approach to counseling underachievers, found a positive relationship between underachievement and possession of irrational beliefs in high school students. Since underachievement has been viewed by educators as a manifestation of poor school adjustment, this finding is important in establishing a link between one area of a serious school problem and the possession of irrational beliefs.

The general theme of most empirical studies dealing with beliefs supports the position of this study that beliefs are influential in steering behavior.

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Self-Concept, Ideal Self-Concept and Discrepancy

Self-concept, Ideal Self-concept and Discrepancy are variables which do appear frequently in the empirical literature. There is, however, little evidence that much work has been done along these lines with culturally deprived urban pupils. Most of the research using self-concept, ideal self-concept and discrepancy, as independent variables, has been done on older populations such as university students, hospital patients and senior high school pupils. A few key studies explain the empirical justification for basic Self-Theory as an approach to better understanding of behavior. Since many of the fruitful researches in the area include self-concept measures as well as ideal self-concept measures, it does not add to clarity of presentation to separate the studies under headings of self-concept, ideal self-concept and discrepancy. Due to the interrelatedness of these concepts in Self-Theory an investigator usually utilizes two or all three of these entities. The rationale for the inter-relatedness of self-concept, ideal self-concept and discrepancy (incongruence) has been shown in Chapter II. The history of research in Self-Theory reveals that earlier, as well as more recent studies are closely related to the positions of Rogers (1950), as well as that of Combs and Snygg (1960), as representative samples. Havighurst (1946) and his colleagues tried to determine the growth of the ideal self during childhood and adolescence. Their findings show the ideal self commences in childhood as an identification with a parental figure;

it moves, during middle childhood and early adolescence, through a stage of romanticism and glamor, and culminates in late adolescence as a composite of desirable characteristics which may be symbolized by a visible adult, or may simply be an imaginary figure. Carlson (1958) demonstrated, by means of specially designed questionnaires providing descriptions of the self and the ideal self, that parental attitudes do, in part, determine aspects of the child's self-concept and his social status.

Relationship between the self-concept and achievement in school was studied by Chickering (1958). Discrepancy scores between their actual self ratings and their ideal self ratings were calculated. The experiment showed that an inverse relationship existed between academic achievement as obtained from objective tests and discrepancy scores.

Donald (1963) was unable to note significant differences in the self-concept of sixth grade boys with respect to race, but found that self-perceptions and I.Q. were significantly related. In their study of congruence of self and ideal self in relation to personality adjustment with male high school juniors, Hanlon, Hofstaetter, and O'Connor (1954), found a positive correlation between self-concept and ideal self-concept. They also found the correlation between the degree of discrepancy and total adjustment to be positive.

Lecky (1945) found negative self perceptions in an individual as indicative of a lack of unity within the personality, or of a discrepancy between the perceptions of self and the ideal self. It was

hypothesized by Bills (1954) that people with a small discrepancy between concept of self and concept of the ideal self would show fewer signs of depression on the Rorschach than people with a large discrepancy. Bills' sample was college students. He compared the Rorschach records of subjects with high discrepancy scores with the records of those who were low discrepancy scorers. It was concluded that on the basis of the findings of the study, a group of people with a high discrepancy between concept of self and concept of the ideal self differs from a group of low discrepancy scores in that the high scorers gave more signs of depression on the Rorschach.

Studying negative self-concept as a personality measure, Cowan (1954) in two samples of college undergraduates, found the high negative self-concept group responded in a manner which was more indicative of better adjustment, than the low negative self-concept group. This finding, using the Brownfain (1952) measures (positive self-concept and negative self-concept), runs counter to the usual findings. One line of explanation, by Cowan (1954) was that there might have been a possible falsification proneness encountered when the subject is asked to make multiple ratings about himself. Taylor and Combs' (1952) study provides an interesting approach to Cowan's results. In investigating self-acceptance and adjustment in sixth grade children, Taylor and Combs (1952) found that better adjusted children were able to accept more damaging statements about themselves. This is an important finding. It will be recalled that in

Cowan's (1954) study using negative self-concept as a personality measure, the findings were the reverse of most self-concept studies. Cowan (1954) felt there is a possible falsification proneness encountered when the subject is asked to make multiple ratings about himself. It appears, to the present investigator, quite reasonable that Taylor and Combs' explanation helps to account for Cowan's findings. As Taylor and Combs (1952) suggest, better adjusted children are able to accept more damaging statements about themselves. So, to carry the reasoning a step further, it might be speculated that poorly adjusted children are not able to accept damaging statements about themselves and, hence, might falsify their self-report statements.

Pomp (1962) confirmed the hypothesis that discrepancy would be significantly higher in his physically disabled group in a comparison of self-concept distortion between two groups of seventh and eighth grade students, one of which was physically disabled and the other non-disabled. Lipsitt (1958) employed both self-concept and discrepancy measures in studying fourth, fifth, and sixth grade children. Lipsitt's findings indicated that of the two types of measures, self-concept and discrepancy, the self-concept provided a somewhat more reliable measure than the discrepancy score. The self-concept measure correlated significantly with performance on the Children's Manifest Anxiety Scale. The high anxious subjects produced low self-concept scores.

Working with male undergraduates, Chodorkoff (1954) set up the hypothesis that the greater the correspondence between the perceived self and the ideal self, the more adequate the individual's personal adjustment. As Chodorkoff points out, his findings indicate that caution must be taken in interpreting correspondence between perceived and ideal self as reflecting adequacy of adjustment. In his groups, although the most adequately adjusted subjects show the highest correspondence between perceived and ideal self, not all of the least adequately adjusted subjects show low correspondence.

Friedman (1955) investigated self relationships in normal, neurotic and paranoid schizophrenic subjects. He found in his sample, that normal subjects tend to see themselves as they would like to be, reflecting positive attitudes toward the self. The neurotic group subjects tended to regard their self qualities as being very much different from the way they would like to be. The paranoid schizophrenic group revealed positive self attitudes which were reflective of self-enhancing defenses and were based on unrealistic self-appraisal.

Many studies (e.g. Raimy, 1943; McQuitty, 1950; Hartley, 1951) support the contention of Rogers (1950) that positive and accepting attitudes toward the self are associated with good psychological adjustment.

SUMMARY

Very few empirical attempts have been made to investigate beliefs of culturally deprived urban school children relating beliefs, cognitions and behavior. However, studies of beliefs in general indicate that a person's beliefs are importantly related to his behavior.

On the other hand, there have been a great many studies of self-concept, some of which involved school populations. However, no studies seem to have been done relating beliefs, self-concept, ideal concept and discrepancy to behavior as a dependent variable.

The general trend in empirical studies of the self-concept follows the three division paradigm of self-concept, ideal self-concept and discrepancy or, as it is sometimes called, incongruence. Self-concept has been shown by these studies to be a measure of behavior adjustment. Discrepancy or, incongruence has been shown to relate to the degree of behavior adjustment, or maladjustment.

The following chapter explains the design and method of the investigation. The procedure is arranged as a logical outgrowth of implementing the approach of this study which seeks to answer the question: Are there differences in the beliefs, self-concept, ideal self-concept and discrepancy in the S₀ pupils and the S_D pupils?

CHAPTER IV

PROCEDURE

The Sample

The methodological design adopted to test the hypotheses of this investigation makes use of pupils selected to fit into the previously designated terminology of stream oriented behavior (S_0) and stream disoriented behavior (S_D). The sample consists of two groups of fourteen year old boys selected from public school classes of the School District of Philadelphia. Boys in each group were selected from low socio-economic neighborhoods. One group is designated as the S_D behavior group and the other is designated as the S_0 behavior group. To rule out the possibility of contamination attributable to mental retardation, no boy was included who had an I.Q.* score of lower than 80.

The selection of boys in the S_D group was from three disciplinary schools. Every boy in the sample had at least three serious behavior incidents precipitating his placement in a disciplinary school. The enrollment in these schools insured adequate resources for drawing of subjects. As of June 1, 1966, the figures were:

*Binet, WISC or Philadelphia Verbal Ability Test.

	S _D - A*	S _D - B**	S _D - C***
Number enrolled	400	350	325

Administrative Bulletin 25 entitled Services for the Handicapped, School District of Philadelphia, specifies information explaining how a pupil is placed in a disciplinary school.

Criteria for Placement

1. A pupil who has demonstrated a continuous pattern of overt behavior so disruptive that he cannot be contained in a regular classroom situation should be recommended.
2. An individual psychological examination by a certified public school psychologist and a specific recommendation by the psychologist for R.D.**** placement is required.
3. A single serious behavior incident may warrant immediate placement of a pupil, pending the psychological examination.
4. A pupil so seriously maladjusted that he may require hospitalization, institutional care, or other out-of-school supervision should be referred for psychiatric consultation.
5. Transfer should be recommended only after the school has exhausted all its resources for adjustment.
6. A referral to the Superintendent's Case Review Committee should be made only if there is potential danger to the pupil himself, or to others. The necessity for this referral should be determined in the preliminary psychiatric evaluation.

*Stream disoriented, School A.
 **Stream disoriented, School B.
 ***Stream disoriented, School C.
 ****Remedial Disciplinary.

The selection of boys in the S₀ group was made from boys in attendance at three junior high schools, each of which is also located in a low socio-economic area in Philadelphia. The sample was not random, but was made on the basis of a minimum I.Q. score of 80, and a school record containing no evidence in the boys' entire school history of a failing mark in cooperation or deportment. In addition, no students who had ever been referred for disciplinary purposes were selected. Academic standing was not considered.

The sample of subjects designated as S_D numbered 102. The sample of the subjects designated as S₀ numbered 67. The total sample numbered 169.

Tests

The subjects in both groups were administered the following measures by the investigator in groups of thirty, or less, within the school of attendance:

California Test of Personality (Intermediate).

S-E Index (Elley, 1961, an abridgement of the Gough 1949 Home Index Scale).

Self-Concept Scale (Lipsitt) 1958.

I-I Inventory (Zingle)* 1965.

Ideal Self-Concept Scale (Lipsitt) 1958.

The first two measures administered were not used in direct

*Abridged by Hoxter, 1966.

support of, or to test any of the hypotheses. Both of these measures were used as an objective aid in the sampling procedure, as will be explained in the following section.

The California Test of Personality

The California Test of Personality was administered to the pupils in the two sample groups to lend supportive evidence to the selection and grouping of pupils in S_D and S_O categories. The California Test of Personality* is organized around the concept of life adjustment. Personal adjustment is assumed to be based in feelings of personal security. The items in the Personal Adjustment half of the test are designed to measure six components of personal security; the items in the Social Adjustment half of the test, six components of social security. The sub-divisions of the test are:

Personal Adjustment

- 1A. Self-Reliance
- 1B. Sense of Personal Worth
- 1C. Sense of Personal Freedom
- 1D. Feeling of Belonging
- 1E. Withdrawing Tendencies
- 1F. Nervous Symptoms

Social Adjustment

- 2A. Social Standards
- 2B. Social Skills
- 2C. Anti-Social Tendencies
- 2D. Family Relations
- 2E. School Relations
- 2F. Community Relations

*Descriptive Statistics may be found in Appendix.

The test yields scores for personal adjustment, social adjustment and total adjustment.

The California Test of Personality was administered to enable a comparison of the two groups. The results were subjected to a t test of difference of means. By this procedure, the arbitrary designation of S_D behavior and S_O behavior was checked to determine if these dichotomies actually existed apart from school behavior. The means and standard deviations were calculated for each group and are presented in Table I with t test results.

TABLE I

DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MEANS OF THE TWO GROUPS
ON CALIFORNIA TEST OF PERSONALITY

Variable	S _D Mean	Group S.D.	S _O Mean	Group S.D.	Diff. Between Means	t	Sig.
Personal Adjustment	56.69	13.72	64.40	11.45	7.71	3.72	p < .001
Social Adjustment	54.89	14.89	66.51	12.81	11.62	5.304	p < .001
Total Adjustment	111.68	26.01	130.97	21.63	19.31	5.010	p < .001

The mean adjustment scores on the California Test of Personality, for the two groups, S_D and S_O, are significantly different as shown in Table I. In each case, the two part scores, and the total score

of The California, the probability level is less than 0.001. The difference between the two groups then is considerable in terms of personality adjustment. Thus, it can be seen that the administration of The California Test has yielded results which support the S_D and S_0 designations of distinct behavior categories.

The Socio-Economic Index

The two groups used in this study were selected from similar low income neighborhoods. The Socio-Economic Index was used as a further and objective check.

The Socio-Economic Index was designed by Elley (1961). It was adapted from Gough's Home Index Scale (1949). The original scale showed re-test reliability of .99 and a Kuder-Richardson Coefficient of .74. Correlations with other socio-economic scales varied from .65 to .88, and previous research with the scale showed that it was sensitive to differences in verbal intelligence and achievement. The administration of the scale permits an appraisal of socio-economic level as reported by the pupil himself.

After finding that the variances were homogeneous, the results of the Socio-Economic Index were subjected to a t test of difference of means to afford a comparison. The means and standard deviations were calculated for each group and are presented in Table II with t test results.

TABLE II

DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MEANS OF THE TWO GROUPS
ON SOCIO-ECONOMIC INDEX

S _D Group		S _O Group		Difference Between Means	t	Sig.
Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.			
10.50	3.29	11.18	3.17	.68	1.32	N.S.

The two groups, S_D and S_O, as seen in the data of Table II can be considered as coming from similar socio-economic backgrounds. The t test of significance of difference between the means was not significant at the .05 level of significance.

Irrational Ideas Inventory

The measurement of beliefs was made possible by the investigator's abridgment of the Irrational Ideas Inventory constructed by Zingle (1965). The original instrument contains statements of beliefs based on Ellis' eleven Irrational Ideas. In the I-I the subject is asked to read each statement and decide whether the answer for him is "yes" or "no." At the end of the statement a check mark is entered under yes or no, two extreme points of a scale scored from one to five. Uncertainties are checked in the middle of the line. The total score is an indication of how much irrationality the subject has in his beliefs. A high score suggests that the subject has many irrational beliefs. On the other hand a low score suggests that the subject has

few irrational beliefs. The abridgment of Zingle's Inventory reduced the number of questions to conform to the selected use of Ellis' Ideas in the theoretical formulation of this study. Also, the reading level of several questions was brought down to enable better understanding by a non-adult population. The revision of the original instrument was not extensive. Reliability and validity data of the original instrument are presented in Appendix C. That data meet acceptable standards* of test construction and validation. Because only slight changes were made in the abridgment, a crude check was made on a sample of 30 S_D and S_O subjects prior to using it on the present investigation sample. To see if, as was expected, the I-I was measuring a form of psychological adjustment, it was compared with the California Test of Personality. The revised I-I correlations were: -.51 with the California Personal Scale, -.65 with the California Social Scale, and -.62 with the California Total Scale. These results establish a measure of construct validity. In an attempt to establish a measure of reliability, the results from administering the abridged version to the pre-investigation sample of S_D subjects and S_O subjects were found to have a reliability coefficient of .62 as obtained from application of Kuder-Richardson Formula 21 using the internal consistency method. The coefficient obtained establishes a reasonable level of test reliability.

*American Psychological Association (Technical Recommendations, 1955).

Self-Concept Scale

A measure of self-concept was obtained by administration of the Self-Concept Scale developed by Lipsitt (1958). A measure of reliability obtained by Lipsitt is shown in Table III.

TABLE III

LIPSITT'S TEST-RETEST CORRELATIONS FOR SELF-CONCEPT
SCALE BY GRADE AND SEX

	Fourth Grade		Fifth Grade		Sixth Grade	
	N	r	N	r	N	r
Boys	44	.73***	46	.80***	40	.84**
Girls	56	.78***	49	.91***	35	.80**

** Significant at .01 level

*** Significant at .001 level

It can be seen from Table III that adequate reliabilities were obtained.

A crude measure of construct validity is obtained by correlations between the Children's Manifest Anxiety Scale and Lipsitt's Self-Concept Scale shown in Table IV.

As can be seen from Table IV, in all cases the correlations between the self-concept scores, and anxiety scores, measured by the CMAS, are significant, five at the .01 and one at the .05 level.

The self-concept scale contains 22 trait-descriptive adjectives, presented here in the order used in the scale: friendly, happy, kind,

TABLE IV

LIPSITT'S CORRELATIONS BETWEEN ANXIETY SCALE
AND SELF-CONCEPT SCALE BY GRADE AND BY SEX

	Fourth Grade		Fifth Grade		Sixth Grade	
	N	r	N	r	N	r
Anxiety Scale and Self-Concept Scale						
Boys	47	-.53**	50	-.40**	41	-.34**
Girls	62	-.63**	61	-.40**	37	-.58**

*Significant at .05 level

**Significant at .01 level

brave, honest, likeable, trusted, good, proud, (lazy), loyal, co-operative, cheerful, thoughtful, popular, courteous, (jealous), obedient, polite, (bashful), clean, helpful. Each of the adjectives is prefaced by the phrase "I am...." and is followed by a five-point rating scale. Nineteen are considered as positive or socially desirable attributes, while three are considered negative or socially undesirable attributes. The rating categories, scored from one to five, are entitled: not at all, not very often, some of the time, most of the time, and all of the time. A score of one is given on an item if subject checks the first category, a score of five if the last category is checked, except in the case of the three negative adjectives which were scored in inverse fashion, or from five to one.

Ideal Self-Concept Scale

The Ideal Self-Concept Scale (Lipsitt, 1958) contains the same adjectives as the Self-Concept Scale, in this case each is prefaced by, "I would like to be...." Again, the subject rates himself on each item. The rating categories are the same as on the Self-Concept Scale. The scoring method is the same as that used for the Self-Concept Scale.

The next chapter describes the analyses that were performed on these data in order to arrive at conclusions and implications stemming from the statistical tests of the hypotheses.

CHAPTER V

ANALYSIS OF DATA

The control of variability due to experimental error can be direct or statistical (Winer, 1962). Attempts were made in the design of this study to control for socio-economic status and intelligence since it was felt these variables might influence the data. This direct control of variability was done even though most studies in the area of concern in this investigation, namely, irrational ideas, self-concept, and ideal self-concept, in the literature have not been concerned, as far as can be determined, with precise control of variability on socio-economic status and intelligence. All of the subjects in the study were selected from the same type of low socio-economic neighborhood. They were given the S.E. Index as a further check that they were similarly grouped. Intelligence was taken into account in part by not selecting any subject with an I.Q. less than 80. It was felt that mental retardation might affect the ability to respond to the questionnaires and test items.

To gain even greater precision the data were subject to analysis of covariance on all variables controlling for socio-economic status and intelligence. Assumptions of analysis of variance include normality and equality of variance of the population distributions. Requirements of the analysis of covariance are the same as in the analysis of

variance. In testing two hypotheses of this investigation mild departures* were noted in homogeneity or equality of variances. In testing Hypothesis Number Three, a more pronounced departure** was noted. However, results by Box (1954), Norton (1952), and Boneau (1960) suggest that the t test and analysis of variance are relatively robust with respect to assumptions of normality and equivariance. Also, "...evidence from the usual analysis of variance indicates that F tests in the analysis of covariance are robust with respect to the violation of the two assumptions, normality and homogeneity of the residual variance" (Winer, 1962, p. 586). A disservice can be done by interpreting a significant result from a test of variances as a prohibition against the use of a test of means (Hays, 1963). Thus, it can be seen that there is support for carrying out analysis of covariance procedure when all of the assumptions of homogeneity of variance are not met.

Analysis of Covariance

Each hypothesis will be reviewed with the effect of statistical control for socio-economic status and intelligence.

Hypothesis I

The first hypothesis predicted the S_D group would have significantly more irrational ideas than the S_P group. Means and adjusted

*Hypotheses II and IV.

**F = 3.25, $p < 0.001$.

means of the two groups are shown in Table V.

TABLE V
MEANS AND ADJUSTED MEANS OF IRRATIONAL IDEAS
SCORES FOR THE STREAM DISORIENTED
AND STREAM ORIENTED GROUPS

Group	N	Means	Adjusted Means
S _D	102	137.35	136.36
S _O	67	115.99	117.50
Difference		21.36	18.86

An analysis of covariance, controlling for socio-economic status and intelligence was performed. A summary of this analysis of covariance is presented in Table VI.

It is clearly evident from an inspection of Table VI that the difference between the adjusted means is significant. The analysis of covariance procedure statistically controlling the two variables, socio-economic status and intelligence, shows that Hypothesis I is confirmed. The S_D group did have significantly more irrational ideas than did the S_O group, as predicted.

TABLE VI

SUMMARY OF ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE OF IRRATIONAL IDEAS
SCORES OF THE STREAM DISORIENTED AND STREAM
ORIENTED GROUPS, CONTROLLING FOR SOCIO-
ECONOMIC STATUS AND INTELLIGENCE

Source of Variation	df	Mean Square	Adjusted F	Significance
Between Groups	1	8641.76	23.48	$p < 0.001$
Within Groups	165	368.07		

Hypothesis II

The second hypothesis predicted lower self-concept scores in the S_D group. Means and adjusted means of the two groups are shown in Table VII.

TABLE VII

MEANS AND ADJUSTED MEANS OF SELF-CONCEPT SCORES FOR THE
STREAM DISORIENTED AND STREAM ORIENTED GROUPS

Group	N	Means	Adjusted Means
S _D	102	78.03	78.02
S _O	67	81.09	81.10
Difference		3.06	3.08

An analysis of covariance, statistically controlling for socio-economic status, and intelligence was performed. The comparison between the S_D and S_O groups was therefore expressed in the form of the significance of the difference between adjusted means. A summary of this analysis of covariance is presented in Table VIII.

TABLE VIII

SUMMARY OF ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE OF SELF-CONCEPT
SCORES OF THE STREAM DISORIENTED AND STREAM
ORIENTED GROUPS, CONTROLLING FOR SOCIO-
ECONOMIC STATUS AND INTELLIGENCE

Source of Variation	df	Mean Square	Adjusted F	Significance
Between Groups	1	230.76	2.46	N.S.
Within Groups	165	93.66		

It is clearly evident from inspection of Table VIII that the difference between the adjusted means is not significant. The analysis of covariance procedure statistically controlling for the two variables, socio-economic status and intelligence shows Hypothesis II not confirmed. The prediction that the S_D group would have significantly lower self-concept scores therefore was not substantiated by analysis of covariance.

Hypothesis III

The third hypothesis predicted no difference in ideal self-concept scores between the S_D group and the S_O group. Means and adjusted means of the two groups are shown in Table IX.

TABLE IX

MEANS AND ADJUSTED MEANS OF IDEAL SELF-CONCEPT SCORES
FOR THE STREAM DISORIENTED AND STREAM ORIENTED GROUPS

Group	N	Means	Adjusted Mean
S _D	102	88.78	89.06
S _O	67	92.52	92.10
Difference		3.74	3.04

An analysis of covariance controlling for socio-economic status and intelligence was performed. The comparison between the S_D and S_O groups was expressed in the form of the significance of the difference between adjusted means. A summary of this analysis of covariance is presented in Table X.

Inspection of Table X shows clearly that the difference between the adjusted means is not significant. The analysis of covariance procedure, controlling the two variables, socio-economic status and intelligence, reveals Hypothesis III to be confirmed. The

S_D group is not significantly different from the S_O group in ideal self-concept, as predicted.

TABLE X

SUMMARY OF ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE OF IDEAL SELF
CONCEPT SCORES OF THE STREAM DISORIENTED AND
STREAM ORIENTED GROUPS, CONTROLLING FOR
SOCIO ECONOMIC STATUS AND INTELLIGENCE

Source of Variation	df	Mean Square	Adjusted F	Significance
Between Groups	1	223.49	2.25	$p < 0.135$
Within Groups	165	99.18		

Hypothesis IV

The fourth hypothesis stated there will be a significantly greater discrepancy between self-concept scores and ideal self-concept scores in the S_D group. It will be recalled that the discrepancy score is obtained by the simple subtraction of the self-concept score from the ideal self-concept score. Means and adjusted means of the two groups are shown in Table XI.

Analysis of covariance, controlling for socio-economic status, and intelligence was performed. The comparison between the S_D and S_O groups was expressed in the form of the significance of the difference between adjusted means. A summary of this analysis of covariance is presented in Table XII.

TABLE XI

MEANS AND ADJUSTED MEANS OR DISCREPANCY SCORES FOR THE
STREAM DISORIENTED AND STREAM ORIENTED GROUPS

Group	N	Means	Adjusted Means
S _D	102	12.05	12.15
S _O	67	11.72	11.56
Difference		.33	.59

TABLE XII

SUMMARY OF ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE OF DISCREPANCY
SCORES OF STREAM DISORIENTED AND STREAM
ORIENTED GROUPS, CONTROLLING FOR SOCIO-
ECONOMIC STATUS AND INTELLIGENCE

Source of Variation	df	Mean Square	Adjusted F	Significance
Between Groups	1	8.42	8.86	N.S.
Within Groups	165	94.98		

It is seen in this table that the difference between the adjusted means is not significant. The analysis of covariance procedure, controlling the two variables, socio-economic status and intelligence, shows Hypothesis IV not confirmed. The S_D group is not significantly different from the S_O group in discrepancy scores, contrary to prediction.

SUMMARY

Analysis of covariance procedure was carried out in a direct test of the four hypotheses of this investigation, controlling for the two variables, socio-economic status and intelligence. Results of the analysis support the first hypothesis, which was intended as an empirical test of the Ellis model of Irrational Ideas. The hypothesis predicting no differences in ideal self-concept was confirmed. The hypotheses relating to self-concept and discrepancy were not confirmed.

The following chapter gives a summary and interpretation of the empirical findings with implications.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS

Summary of Findings

Four hypotheses were examined in this study. The first hypothesis predicted S_D subjects would have more irrational ideas than the S_O subjects. The second predicted the S_D subjects would have lower self-concept scores. The third hypothesis predicted no difference in ideal self-concept between the S_O group and the S_D group. The fourth hypothesis predicted greater discrepancy scores in the S_D subjects.

The hypotheses were examined in a framework of grouping based on overt behavior. The empirical procedure took socio-economic level and intelligence into consideration in assignment of subjects to groups. Subjects in both S_D and S_O groups were drawn from similar socio-economic neighborhoods. A further check was made by administration of a socio-economic scale. All subjects had an I.Q. of at least 80, or above. Analysis of covariance results controlling for socio-economic level and intelligence upheld hypothesis one. The conclusion to be drawn from this finding is that there is a significant relationship between possession of irrational beliefs and the kind of behavior described in this study as S_D. The subjects in the S_D group clearly had more irrational ideas than the subjects in the S_O group.

The test of the second hypothesis resulted in the hypothesis being rejected. The subjects in the S_D group did not have significantly lower self-concept scores. From the writings of Snygg and Combs (1949), such a finding is unexpected. "Self-theories" in psychology have a common approach to the self-concept as it relates to so called adequate or positive personality. While it is true that adequate persons can have negative self perceptions, the present results differ from Bills' (1954) study in which he found a high positive correlation between self-concept and adjustment. Also, as indicated in Chapter II, studies of Raimy (1943), McQuitty (1950), Hartley (1951), and others tend to support the contention of Rogers (1950) that positive and accepting attitudes toward the self are associated with good psychological adjustment. Horney and Sullivan, as therapists and theorists, also consider a positive relation to exist between self-concept and good adjustment.

It is not easy to explain negative results. Negative results can be due to any one, or several, or all of the following: incorrect theory and hypothesis, inappropriate or incorrect methodology, inadequate or poor measurement, or faulty analysis (Kerlinger, 1964, p. 620). In this case the concern is with self-concept, an admittedly difficult variable of personality in terms of measurement. In an attempt to bring some order to the theoretical and empirical literature relating to testing personality theories, especially relating to

self-concept theories, Wylie (1961), in an exhaustive and definitive study which included the works of a great many self-theorists, points out the ambiguity of the theories, their incompleteness and overlapping nature. No one theory has received a large amount of systematic empirical exploration (Wylie, 1961, p. 3).

It is the tentative opinion of the present investigator that the negative results obtained in examining the second hypothesis may be related to problems stemming from the subjective vs. objective approach in self-concept. The investigator agrees with Wylie when she says:

Again it remains to be demonstrated whether behavior can be predicted more efficiently by objective measures than by indices of the phenomenal self, or whether adding objective measures to self-concept measures improves the predictions one could make from either type of measure alone (Wylie, 1961, p. 320).

The findings of fairly similar evaluations of self in quite divergent behavior groups might be related to a subject's school placement or institutional placement. For example, a boy in a disciplinary school may tend to distort his subjectively reported self-concept in a direction he considers desirable as a result of counseling, an official school program of re-education, inferior feeling resulting from introspection, or the feeling he is different, or simply "to make a good impression" on the teachers, or the "test administrator." This approach gets into the large question of validity which will not be explored here. Better internal test controls

which aim for greater validity in responses should be attempted in assessing self-concept of subjects designated by society as being in some way "different" or "punitively placed."

The third hypothesis was stated in the null form because the empirical literature, as meager as it is, does not permit direction of prediction. As far as can be determined, ideal self-concept has not been studied from the point of view of qualitative nor quantitative differences as they might relate to behavior classifiable as adequate or, on the other hand, negative or inadequate. From the analysis of the data for the two groups of this study, the ideal self-concept scores are not significantly different. Apparently, therefore, ideal self-concepts are seen rather similarly by S_D and S_O subjects.

The main value it seems, in the measurement of the ideal self-concept is in its use in the computation of the discrepancy score, i.e., the difference between the self-concept score and the ideal self-concept score.

Greater discrepancy in the S_D subjects (Hypothesis IV), was not confirmed. This finding would not be expected in view of present theory and the limited studies in the literature.

In his study dealing with adjustment and the discrepancy between the perceived and ideal self, Chodorkoff (1954) set up the following hypothesis to be tested: the greater the correspondence between the perceived and ideal self, the more adequate the

individual's personal adjustment. This is the direction that client centered research would suggest. The interesting finding from his study is that:

It can therefore be seen that caution must be taken in interpreting correspondence between perceived and ideal self as reflecting adequacy of adjustment. Although the most adequately adjusted subjects observed the highest correspondence between the perceived and ideal self, the least adequately adjusted subjects did not show the least correspondence (Chodorkoff, 1954, p. 268).

The implication of this warning may extend into our finding of no significant differences in the discrepancy scores. Chodorkoff's subjects were male undergraduates while this investigator's subjects were fourteen year-old youngsters. It is possible that further research into discrepancy scores along the lines of a behavior continuum might lead to findings throwing more light on Chodorkoff's observations. From a theoretical point of view both Rogers' and Horney's work stress the difference or discrepancy between the self and an idealized self as a measure of negative adjustment. On the other hand, Lipsitt (1958) in a study of self-concept with children found that the self-concept measure taken by itself was more reliable than the discrepancy measure and that the self-concept measure was more highly related to CMAS* than was the discrepancy score. In his study, Lipsitt indicated the discrepancy score may consist of the total difference between the two measures, and this discrepancy is

*Children's Manifest Anxiety Score.

considered as reflecting degree of dissatisfaction with oneself (Lipsitt, 1958, p. 464). This observation could be a key to a partial understanding of the negative results of Hypothesis IV. The usual approach may be rather narrow if we think simply that discrepancy represents disturbance. But, looking closer at Lipsitt's argument, "that this discrepancy is considered as reflecting degree of dissatisfaction with oneself," it seems reasonable to conjecture that in the present sample designated as S_D subjects the degree of self dissatisfaction may be very slight, indeed. A few known considerations can serve as illustrations. In low-economic, depressed urban areas, acting-out, unsocial and anti-social patterns by teenage boys is not peer disapproved and often not parent disapproved behavior. To be labelled a "tough-guy" or belong to one gang or another is often a positive "status symbol." So through the mechanism of a self-report system such an individual might well be prone to consider the distance, subconsciously, if not consciously, between what he is and what he would like to be, quite small.

Further Discussion of Findings

The rejection of the hypothesis regarding self-concept may have further implications for education of the urban culturally deprived. Apart from the interpretations already given in this chapter, it seems desirable to the investigator to mention briefly an additional inter-relation of certain investigation variables. It

will be recalled that the S_D and S_O subjects were found to be very different in personality adjustment, as measured by the California Test of Personality.

Can the finding of no significant differences in self-concepts of such distinctly different groups be related to their culturally deprived status? Is the environment the major influence in producing such an unexpected finding? It is not unusual in a large urban setting to find completely homogeneous groupings of low socio-economic levels in schools and neighborhoods. Such schools often have enrollments of two or three thousand students. The neighborhoods they come from are more populous than many small cities. The reinforcement of prevailing values tends to establish a greater acceptance of group standards and ideals because these stream disoriented students are in constant association with stream oriented students whose socio-economic backgrounds are no different from their own. They may not, under these conditions develop feelings of differences with respect to their self-concept as compared to the self-concept of their peers in the stream oriented group. On the other hand, where S_D pupils form a minority in a city, or town, perhaps their self-concepts might tend to be under a degree of self-scrutiny because they are more likely to associate with persons whose socio-economic background and values are different from their own. It seems reasonable to predict that in these circumstances S_D individuals might report lower self-concepts. Whether

or not the self-concepts of S_D urban groups are different from similar S_D groups in smaller cities or townships, is a problem which should be attacked in another research.

The finding that the S_D subjects were so clearly different from the S_O subjects in behavior, personality adjustment, and possession of irrational beliefs, but not in self-concept, offers a challenge. As the investigator sees it, the challenge involves a more comprehensive exploration of the self-concepts of these S_D youngsters.

Implications

Further study along the same theoretical lines with more intensive concern for internal consistency in the measurements and a rigorous attempt to insure higher validity on responses may throw some light on the findings which tend to run counter to the empirical and theoretical considerations of previous endeavors. If the presently used self-concept scale, because of inadequate reliability and validity, has contributed to the negative findings, then a revised scale or a different one for measuring self-concept might prove of greater value.

One finding of this study, which supports the Ellis Model of negative emotion and irrational ideas, should be of important interest to educators and psychologists who are concerned with pupils who have trouble with behavior in school.

Ellis (1962) has shown that man is at times uniquely rational,

and at other times uniquely irrational, and that his psychological disturbances are largely the result of his thinking illogically or irrationally. It seems reasonable to assume that pupils in the S_D group, therefore, can be helped the way Ellis prescribes by showing them, in a therapeutic situation that:

- (a) Their difficulties largely result from distorted perception and illogical thinking; and
- (b) There is a relatively simple, though work requiring method of ordering their perception and reorganizing their thinking so as to remove the basic cause of their difficulties (Ellis, 1962, p. 36).

There is empirical evidence that the kind of approach suggested by Ellis is effective in treating underachievement, one symptom of S_D behavior (Zingle, 1965). Thus, further attempts to work with other symptoms of S_D behavior seem to be a reasonable and logical implication of this study.

Generalizing on the basis of our empirical findings should not go beyond the kind of population sampled. The fact that the S_D subjects have significantly more irrational ideas supports Ellis' basic foundation of Rational Emotive Therapy. While Ellis does not himself stress the value of this approach in a direct empirical

application to a non-adult population, the evidence of this study clearly shows a significant relationship between irrational ideas and negative emotion in a specific non-adult population.

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A P P E N D I C E S

APPENDIX A

California Test of Personality

The following are reliability coefficients
on the California Test of Personality
used in this study.

CALIFORNIA TEST OF PERSONALITY RELIABILITY
COEFFICIENTS (INTERMEDIATE)

		Form AA or BBc S.E.	Both Forms S.E.
Components		r	meas.
1.	Personal Adjustment	.93	3.57
	A. Self-reliance	.70	1.64
	B. Sense of Personal Worth	.75	1.50
	C. Sense of Personal Freedom	.92	0.99
	D. Feeling of Belonging	.97	0.65
	E. Withdrawing Tendencies	.97	0.65
		.83	1.34
	F. Nervous Symptoms	.82	1.27
2.	Social Adjustment	.94	3.43
	A. Social Standards	.94	0.67
	B. Social Skills	.75	1.50
	C. Anti-Social Tendencies		
		.86	1.22
	D. Family Relations	.92	.99
	E. School Relations	.86	1.31
	F. Community Relations	.87	1.08
	Total Adjustment	.96	5.10
Number of Cases		1136	

ITEM ANALYSIS DATA (Intermediate)
(255 Students - Grades 7-9)

Percent of Correct Responses	.19 and below	.20 - .29	.30 - .39	.40 - .49	.50 - .59	.60 - .69	.70 and above
99 - 100	6	19					
80 - 89	4	12					
70 - 79	1	5					
60 - 69		1					
50 - 59							
40 - 49							
30 - 39	1						
20 - 29							
10 - 19							
0 - 9							
Total	12						

APPENDIX B

APPENDIX B

S-E Index

The following is a copy of the Socio-Economic status scale used in this study.

1. How much money do you have in the bank?	100
2. How much money do you have in the bank?	100
3. How much money do you have in the bank?	100
4. How much money do you have in the bank?	100
5. How much money do you have in the bank?	100
6. How much money do you have in the bank?	100
7. How much money do you have in the bank?	100
8. How much money do you have in the bank?	100
9. How much money do you have in the bank?	100
10. How much money do you have in the bank?	100
11. How much money do you have in the bank?	100
12. How much money do you have in the bank?	100
13. How much money do you have in the bank?	100
14. How much money do you have in the bank?	100
15. How much money do you have in the bank?	100
16. How much money do you have in the bank?	100
17. How much money do you have in the bank?	100
18. How much money do you have in the bank?	100
19. How much money do you have in the bank?	100
20. How much money do you have in the bank?	100
21. How much money do you have in the bank?	100
22. How much money do you have in the bank?	100
23. How much money do you have in the bank?	100
24. How much money do you have in the bank?	100
25. How much money do you have in the bank?	100
26. How much money do you have in the bank?	100
27. How much money do you have in the bank?	100
28. How much money do you have in the bank?	100
29. How much money do you have in the bank?	100
30. How much money do you have in the bank?	100
31. How much money do you have in the bank?	100
32. How much money do you have in the bank?	100
33. How much money do you have in the bank?	100
34. How much money do you have in the bank?	100
35. How much money do you have in the bank?	100
36. How much money do you have in the bank?	100
37. How much money do you have in the bank?	100
38. How much money do you have in the bank?	100
39. How much money do you have in the bank?	100
40. How much money do you have in the bank?	100
41. How much money do you have in the bank?	100
42. How much money do you have in the bank?	100
43. How much money do you have in the bank?	100
44. How much money do you have in the bank?	100
45. How much money do you have in the bank?	100
46. How much money do you have in the bank?	100
47. How much money do you have in the bank?	100
48. How much money do you have in the bank?	100
49. How much money do you have in the bank?	100
50. How much money do you have in the bank?	100

S. E. INDEX

1. Name: _____
(Last Name) (First Name)
2. The people who live in my house are: _____
Mother Father Stepmother Stepfather Sister(s)
Brother(s) Other(s) (Put the number in the blank - 1,2,3,
etc)
3. Father's occupation: _____
(Be clear)
4. Mother's occupation: _____
5. Is another (foreign) language other than English spoken in your home?
If so: (a) What is it? _____
(b) Circle the words which tell how often it is used.
Hardly Ever Quite Often Most of the Time

DIRECTIONS: In the following questions, mark your answer by putting a circle in the right place. For example, in the question "Does your family have a car?", draw a circle around the "Yes" if your family does have a car, and around the "No" if it does not. By sure to answer all the questions.

1. Does your family have a car? Yes No
2. Does your family have a garage or carport? Yes No
3. Did your father go to high school? Yes No
4. Did your mother go to high school? Yes No
5. Did your father go to college? Yes No
6. Did your mother go to college? Yes No
7. Is there a desk in your home? Yes No
8. Does your family have a Hi-Fi or record player? Yes No
9. Does your family have a piano? Yes No
10. Does your family get a daily newspaper? Yes No
11. Do you have your own room at home? Yes No
12. Does your family own its home? Yes No
13. Is there a set of encyclopedias in your home? Yes No
14. Does your family have more than 100 hard-cover books? Yes No
(4 shelves - 3 feet long)
15. Did your parents borrow any books from the library in the last
year Yes No
16. Does your family leave town at least once a year for a holiday? Yes No
17. Do you belong to any club where you have to pay fees? Yes No
18. Does your mother belong to any clubs or organizations such as
study, church, art or social clubs? Yes No
19. Does your father belong to any such clubs or organizations? Yes No
20. Have you ever had lessons in music, dancing, art, swimming,
etc., outside of school? Yes No

APPENDIX C

I-I Inventory*

The following is a copy of the Irrational Ideas
Inventory used in this study.

*Abridged by Hoxter (1966).

I-I INVENTORY

Name _____

Date _____ Grade _____ Section _____

To the Student

This is a study of events and experiences in every day life. You are asked to cooperate seriously and carefully in marking the items in this booklet. This is not an intelligence test. The best answer to each statement is your own first impression - there are no right or wrong answers.

Your answers will be treated with the strictest confidence and in no case will they be used to cause you any embarrassment.

Instructions for Marking Answers

For each statement, decide whether your answer is "Yes" or "No." If your statement is a definite "Yes" put an (X) on the end of the line where the "Yes" is typed. If your answer is a definite "No" put an (X) on the end of the line nearest the "No." If you are not sure as to how you feel about the statement mark an (X) on the middle of the line. If the true answer is somewhere between the "Yes" and "No," put the (X) where it is most true for you.

Think carefully but do not spend too much time on any one question. Let your own personal experience or opinion guide you to choose the answer you feel about each statement. There is no time limit. Please mark every item.

- | | | | | |
|-----|---|-----|---|----|
| 1. | It is better to tell your troubles to your friends than to keep them to yourself. | Yes | ? | No |
| 2. | When I don't like my teacher, I accept her anyway and do the best I can. | Yes | ? | No |
| 3. | It is foolish to let others see how you feel. | Yes | ? | No |
| 4. | If I have a choice between important school work or fun, I usually don't do the school work. | Yes | ? | No |
| 5. | I worry about little things. | Yes | ? | No |
| 6. | It is impossible at any given time to change one's feelings. | Yes | ? | No |
| 7. | I sometimes worry about my health. | Yes | ? | No |
| 8. | If someone insults me or hurts my feelings, I cannot help it if I call him a bad name or hit him. | Yes | ? | No |
| 9. | I think that I am getting a square deal in life. | Yes | ? | No |
| 10. | Boys and girls should not be punished for cutting classes, or for being truant | Yes | ? | No |
| 11. | It is useless to worry about things that cannot be changed or corrected. | Yes | ? | No |
| 12. | If I get some bad marks on a report card, I stop trying and I lose interest in school. | Yes | ? | No |
| 13. | I prefer to have someone with me when I receive bad news. | Yes | ? | No |
| 14. | When I do not win a race, or I don't get a good mark in school I feel very upset. | Yes | ? | No |
| 15. | Some children are dull because of poor training at home and poor schooling. | Yes | ? | No |
| 16. | Because winning is the most important thing, I do not enjoy playing on the losing side. | Yes | ? | No |
| 17. | It is right not to forgive our enemies. | Yes | ? | No |

- | | | | |
|-----|---|--|--|
| 18. | Teachers, counselors and parents know better about what courses pupils should take than the pupils themselves. | Yes ? No | |
| 19. | If you are rich you will be happy at home. | Yes ? No | |
| 20. | It is okay to drop out of school or quit early if your parents did not graduate. | Yes ? No | |
| 21. | I worry over possible things going wrong. | Yes ? No | |
| 22. | When people make fun of me or the way I look it does not bother me. | Yes ? No | |
| 23. | I have sometimes crossed the street to avoid meeting some person. | Yes ? No | |
| 24. | If a person's mother or father is dead or not living with the family, the children will not grow up to have a good life. | Yes ? No | |
| 25. | The boy who is usually not good in school is often a great success after leaving school. | Yes ? No | |
| 26. | I break school rules because the pupils did not help to make them. | Yes ? No | |
| 27. | Sometimes I am troubled by thoughts of death. | Yes ? No | |
| 28. | If I were able to do so I would attend some other school than the one I am now attending. | Yes ? No | |
| 29. | I get terribly upset and miserable when things are not the way I would like them to be. | Yes ? No | |
| 30. | I worry about what happens after you die. | Yes ? No | |
| 31. | I get very angry when I miss a bus which passes only a few feet away from me. | Yes ? No | |
| 32. | A person who will not stand up for his rights as a teenager will probably not be able to stand up for his rights as an adult. | Yes ? No | |
| 33. | Crime never pays. | Yes ? No | |
| 34. | I feel that life has a great deal more happiness than trouble. | Yes ? No | |

- | | | | | |
|-----|---|-----|---|----|
| 35. | When things are not the way I would like them to be, and I cannot change them, I calmly accept things the way they are. | Yes | ? | No |
| | | ' | ' | ' |
| 36. | A juvenile delinquent will almost surely be a criminal when he becomes an adult. | Yes | ? | No |
| | | ' | ' | ' |
| 37. | Many of my classmates are so unkind or unfriendly that I avoid them. | Yes | ? | No |
| | | ' | ' | ' |
| 38. | I like to do things that people think are right. | Yes | ? | No |
| | | ' | ' | ' |
| 39. | If a child is brought up in a home where there is much quarrelling and unhappiness he will probably be unhappy in his own marriage. | Yes | ? | No |
| | | ' | ' | ' |
| 40. | If a person tried hard enough, he can be first in anything. | Yes | ? | No |
| | | ' | ' | ' |
| 41. | I worry about the possibility of an atomic bomb attack by another country. | Yes | ? | No |
| | | ' | ' | ' |
| 42. | I often spend more time in trying to think of ways of getting out of doing something than it would take me to do it. | Yes | ? | No |
| | | ' | ' | ' |
| 43. | When a person is no longer interested in doing his best he is becoming useless. | Yes | ? | No |
| | | ' | ' | ' |
| 44. | I am happiest when I am sitting around doing little or nothing. | Yes | ? | No |
| | | ' | ' | ' |
| 45. | To work together is better than to work against each other. | Yes | ? | No |
| | | ' | ' | ' |
| 46. | People who are not perfect in doing at least one thing are worthless. | Yes | ? | No |
| | | ' | ' | ' |
| 47. | Most people can be very good in at least doing one thing well. | Yes | ? | No |
| | | ' | ' | ' |

APPENDIX D

The following are reliability coefficients of the
Irrational Beliefs Questionnaire (Zingle, 1965).

IRRATIONAL BELIEFS QUESTIONNAIRE

Irrational Ideas Inventory constructed by Zingle (1965).

Reliability

Test re-test and internal consistency reliability coefficients, based on a sample of 91 subjects were computed:

RE-TEST AND INTERNAL CONSISTENCY RELIABILITY
COEFFICIENTS FOR THE I - I INVENTORY

Subtest	Number of Items	Retest Reliability Coefficient	Internal Consistency Coefficient
1	12	.81	.68
2	13	.61	.21
3	13	.53	.10
4	8	.66	.52
5	13	.65	.42
6	11	.79	.66
7	13	.76	.53
8	12	.65	.45
9	9	.46	.19
10	7	.74	.63
11	11	.65	.38
Total Test	122	.80	.50

APPENDIX E

The following are Zingle's (1965) intercorrelations
of subtest scores in the I - I Inventory.

APPENDIX F

S - C Scale

The following is a copy of the Self-Concept Scale

used in this study.

S - C SCALE

Name _____

Date _____ Grade _____ Section _____

To the Student

This is a study of how girls and boys feel about themselves. We want to help girls and boys learn and get along in life. There are a lot of things we already know, but we still need more information in some areas. Included in this, we need to know how much a person knows about himself. This is not an intelligence test. This is not a school test. How much do you know about yourself? In telling us how much you know about yourself you will be helping us learn more about all girls and boys.

The best answers to each statement is your first impression - there are no right or wrong answers.

Instructions for Marking Answers

For each statement, decide which one of the choices your answer will be. There are five choices - Not at All, Not Very Often, Some of the Time, Most of the Time and All of the Time. Put an (X) in the place on the line that tells best how you feel about yourself

Think carefully, but do not spend too much time on any one question. Let your own personal experience or opinion help you to choose the answer you feel about each statement. There are no right or wrong answers. Please mark every item.

	NOT AT ALL	NOT VERY OFTEN	SOME OF THE TIME	MOST OF THE TIME	ALL OF THE TIME
1. I am friendly					
2. I am happy					
3. I am kind					
4. I am brave					
5. I am honest					
6. I am likeable					
7. I am trusted					
8. I am good					
9. I am proud					
10. I am lazy					
11. I am loyal					
12. I am cooperative					
13. I am cheerful					
14. I am thoughtful					
15. I am popular					
16. I am courteous					
17. I am jealous					
18. I am obedient					
19. I am polite					
20. I am bashful					
21. I am clean					
22. I am helpful					

APPENDIX G

The following are correlations for Discrepancy Scores
(Lipsitt, 1958).

TEST-RETEST CORRELATIONS FOR DISCREPANCY

SCORES BY GRADE AND BY SEX

	Fourth Grade		Fifth Grade		Sixth Grade	
	N	r	N	r	N	r
Discrepancy Scores						
Boys	28	.57**	44	.72***	38	.56***
Girls	32	.66***	48	.68***	34	.51**

** Significant at .01 level

*** Significant at .001 level

APPENDIX H

I-S Scale

The following is a copy of the Ideal Self-Concept
Scale used in this study.

	NOT AT ALL	NOT VERY OFTEN	SOME OF THE TIME	MOST OF THE TIME	ALL OF THE TIME
1. I would like to be friendly					
2. I would like to be happy					
3. I would like to be kind					
4. I would like to be brave					
5. I would like to be honest					
6. I would like to be likeable					
7. I would like to be trusted					
8. I would like to be good					
9. I would like to be proud					
10. I would like to be lazy					
11. I would like to be loyal					
12. I would like to be co- operative					
13. I would like to be cheerful					
14. I would like to be thought- ful					
15. I would like to be popular					
16. I would like to be courteous					
17. I would like to be jealous					
18. I would like to be obedient					
19. I would like to be polite					
20. I would like to be bashful					
21. I would like to be clean					
22. I would like to be helpful					

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